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...RELATED TO PERCEPTION...
...AND...PERSONALITY.....
UNIVERSITY...O.F. ALBERTA.....
DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED...MSc.....
YEAR THIS DEGREE GRANTED...1973.....

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FASHION OPINION LEADERSHIP RELATED TO
SELECTED PERCEPTUAL AND PERSONALITY VARIABLES

by



JOYCE EILEEN BRETT

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF MASTER OF SCIENCE

IN

CLOTHING AND TEXTILES
SCHOOL OF HOUSEHOLD ECONOMICS

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1973

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read,
and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and
Research, a thesis entitled Fashion Opinion Leadership
Related to Selected Perceptual and Personality Variables
submitted by Joyce Eileen Brett in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science.

James K. MacLennan
Supervisor

W.S. Black

Betty Crown

W. Lefebvre

Date *July 24, 1973*

ABSTRACT

Fashion Opinion Leadership
Related to Selected
Perceptual and Personality Variables

by

Joyce Eileen Brett, Master of Science
University of Alberta, 1973

Major Professor: Dr. Anne P. Kernalleguen

School of Household Economics

Division: Clothing and Textiles

The purpose of this study was to investigate selected perceptual and personality variables in relation to fashion opinion leadership. Rogers' theory of diffusion of innovation formed the theoretical framework. Related theories involving perception and personality, specifically Witkin's theory of field dependence, Rotter's theory of internal-external control, and Alpert's conception of facilitating and debilitating anxiety, were incorporated into the main theory.

A random sample of 102 women was selected from all females listed in the 1972-73 University of Alberta Student Directory. The instruments used to measure the selected perceptual and personality variables were: Rogers' Opinion Leadership Scale, measuring fashion opinion leadership; Witkin's Rod and Frame Test, measuring field dependence; Rotter's Internal-External Control Scale, measuring locus of control; and Alpert's Achievement Anxiety Test, measuring facilitating and debilitating anxiety.

Pearson product-moment correlation and partial correlation were

used to compute possible associations between variables. Results of the statistical analyses indicated the following:

1. fashion opinion leadership was positively related to debilitating anxiety and negatively related to facilitating anxiety
2. external control was positively related to debilitating anxiety and negatively related to facilitating anxiety
3. no significant correlation was found between fashion opinion leadership and field dependence or locus of control
4. no significant correlation was found between field dependence and locus of control or anxiety

(67 pages)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Gratitude is expressed to Dr. Anne Kernalleguen, major professor, for her unfailing guidance and encouragement throughout the graduate program. Thanks are extended to the other members of the thesis committee, Dr. Verna Lefebvre and Mrs. Betty Crown, Division of Clothing and Textiles, and Dr. W. G. Blanchard, Department of Psychology, for their valuable suggestions.

To the School of Household Economics, Division of Clothing and Textiles, appreciation is expressed for the rewarding experience afforded by a teaching assistantship. The co-operation of the students who participated in the study is gratefully recognized.

The interest and support extended by the writer's family and friends is appreciated.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The authority of fashion is imperative as to everything it touches. The sanctions are ridicule and powerlessness. The dissenter hurts himself; he never affects the fashion. (Sumner, 1906, p. 194)

Fashion plays an increasingly important role in the functioning of our economy. One has only to consider the vast extent of consumer spending, the incredibly rapid rate of obsolescence, and the desperate attempts of the retailer to capture the imagination of the customer to realize this is so. Fashion can no longer be dismissed as involving only areas peripheral to life. It has been noted that:

Fashion, in a general sense, has been called the force behind most discretionary spending. It influences not only what we wear but what we do and how we live. Its impact on the economy is widespread and significant. Fashion is of vital importance to the apparel industry. Durability of materials, quality of workmanship, price of product are all subordinate to the concept of fashion; and this has important implications for both the fashion industry and the consumer. (Dardis, 1966, p. 13)

In order for the individual to have any chance of controlling his own destiny, he must understand the external factors which influence his behavior and that of his fellows. Fashion is a social force which pervades the whole of modern existence.

Laver (1969) commented that, until recently, the study of fashions in clothing has been superficial and dilatory, with little attempt at understanding. He expressed approval of a more fruitful trend:

... in recent years (it is surprising how recent), there has been a growing number of writers who have concerned themselves not only with the "What" of fashion, but with the "When" and the "How", and some have even ventured into the difficult question of "Why". (Laver, 1969, p. 164)

Kuzik (1973) urged that research on fashion be encouraged in Canada, particularly on consumer motivation in purchasing fashion apparel.

Fashion has been viewed as a form of collective behavior whose compelling power lies in the implicit judgement of an anonymous multitude (Lang and Lang, 1961). Collective behavior, however, is the composite of the behavior of individuals. It is individuals who participate in the development of fashion. A study of the individual, in particular the fashion leader, who is instrumental in influencing others about fashion, should contribute to the understanding of fashion.

Justification

This study is concerned with the investigation of the characteristics of the fashion opinion leader. Perceptual and personality traits are useful indices of an individual's relation to himself and to his physical and social environment. Witkin (1954) stated:

... the explanation of the organized character of perceptual experience lies neither in the structure of the field alone nor in the personal characteristics of the perceiver alone, but in both. To understand perception, we must study the act of perceiving itself, and therein discover how factors from each combine to determine a given outcome. (Witkin, 1954, p. 499)

How a person behaves is determined by the interaction of his personality, his environment, and his perception of these (Combs and Snygg, 1959).

A clearer understanding of fashion might thus be gained through the investigation of the fashion opinion leader's behavior in terms of perceptual style and personality, more specifically, field dependence,

locus of control, and anxiety.

Objectives

The objectives of this study were to investigate fashion opinion leadership in terms of its correlation with:

- a. field dependence
- b. internal-external control
- c. facilitating and debilitating anxiety

and to explore the correlation among the above variables.

Procedure

The procedure of the study was as follows:

1. Select a random sample of female students listed in the 1972-73 University of Alberta Student Directory.
2. Administer four instruments:
 - a. Opinion Leadership Scale
 - b. Rod and Frame Test
 - c. Internal-External Control Scale
 - d. Achievement Anxiety Test.
3. Analyze the results descriptively and statistically.
4. Interpret the findings with reference to the theoretical framework.

Limitations

The limitations of this investigation were as follows:

1. Only one indice, a self-report technique, was used to determine the extent of subjects' fashion opinion leadership. It was assumed that subjects were willing and able to place themselves accurately with

4
regard to fashion opinion leadership.

2. A random sample of female subjects listed in the 1972-73 University of Alberta Student Directory was attempted; however, replacements were made for those who could not be contacted, and for those who could not or did not wish to participate. The sample was therefore not truly random.
3. The sample was representative only of female students at the University of Alberta; generalizations cannot be made beyond this population.
4. Uncontrolled variables may have affected the results. For example, all subjects could not be tested on the same day, or at the same time of day. Differing reactions to the testing situation itself might cause undue variation in responses. All subjects may not have completed the testing with the same degree of conscientiousness.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Fundamental to this investigation is a survey of theory and research related to fashion opinion leadership, perception, and personality. Literature pertaining to fashion opinion leadership is reviewed in terms of diffusion research and the study of fashion itself. The frame of reference for discussing perception is the theory of field dependence. Personality is examined via the variables of locus of control and anxiety. This chapter is organized under the following headings: opinion leadership, fashion and fashion leadership, field dependence, locus of control, and anxiety.

Opinion Leadership

Diffusion research has long been of interest to sociologists, anthropologists, and marketers. A substantial contribution to the field has been by the rural sociologist, Everett M. Rogers. Rogers (1962) hypothesized that individuals could be categorized according to the time they adopt an innovation. Opinion Leaders are defined as those individuals from whom others seek advice and information. Innovators are the first to adopt new ideas in their social system (Rogers, 1962). Opinion leaders may be found throughout the adoption curve, but their behavior is most characteristic of the early adopter category. They probably combine some of the traits of the innovator and the majority.

Figure 1 is a model delineating Rogers' categories of adopters, based on findings from studies investigating innovations in farm practices. It has not been empirically proven but is accepted as a

guide for comparisons of adoption of innovations.

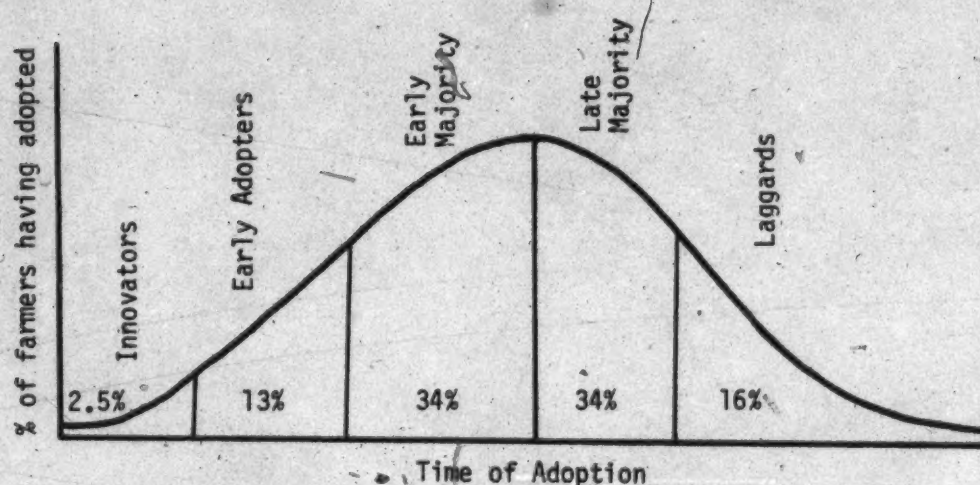


Figure I. Adopter categorization on the basis of an adoption frequency distribution (Rogers, 1958, p. 351)

Rogers (1962) argued that the diffusion process is a complex one in which opinion leaders may influence other opinion leaders and they in turn influence their followers. Influence is a matter of degree and should be viewed as a continuum rather than a dichotomy between leadership and conformity. Other research lends support to Rogers' diffusion model. Coleman, Katz and Menzel (1957), studying the adoption of innovations among physicians, and Mansfield (1961), investigating industrial diffusion, reported results analogous to those of Rogers.

A leader is dependent upon the group for support of his leadership. He must fulfill group goals and inspire trust. Once a person conforms to group norms, he builds up idiosyncrasy credit which allows him to deviate from group norms, and yet be accepted by the group (Petrullo

and Bass, 1961). Petruccio and Bass suggested that an individual who attempts leadership does so because of: (1) the rewards associated with the task, (2) specific task requirements needing leadership, (3) expectations of accomplishment of group tasks, (4) personal acceptance by members because of leadership, (5) previously acquired leadership status, (6) possession of relevant task information not readily transmittable to others.

From research, some generalizations have been formulated about the characteristic behavior of opinion leaders. Rogers (1962) asserted that opinion leaders conform more closely to group norms than the average group member. Becker supported this assertion with the comment that:

. . . when the norms of a particular group favour change, progressive behavior will be located in group leaders; but, if the norms favour maintenance of the status quo, the leaders will retain a conservative approach, while marginals will assume the role of innovators. (Becker, 1970, p. 267)

Rogers (1962) expressed the idea that opinion leadership is not a global but rather a specific trait. Montgomery and Silk (1971) stated that areas of opinion leadership tend to correlate with areas of high interest for most persons who designate themselves as opinion leaders. However, Marcus and Bauer (1964) investigated leadership in fashion, marketing, and public affairs. They found, when comparing leaders and nonleaders in an area, that leaders were twice as likely to be leaders in two areas and five times as likely to be leaders in all three areas of influence.

Opinion leaders differ from their followers in several ways. Opinion leaders are more cosmopolite than their followers. Social participation is higher for opinion leaders, since to be influential a leader must be accessible. Opinion leaders have a slightly higher

social status than followers. Finally, opinion leaders are more innovative than their followers (Rogers, 1962).

Boone (1971) administered the California Psychological Inventory to fifty consumer innovators and forty-eight consumer followers in a study of the adoption of cable television. He found that innovators had higher incomes, greater mobility, and more memberships and offices in organizations, suggestive of opinion leadership. Innovators scored higher on the factors of: Dominance, Capacity for Status, Sociability, Social Presence, Self-acceptance, Sense of Well-being, Tolerance, Achievement via Conformance, Achievement via Independence, and Intellectual Efficiency.

Rogers (1962) described three main methods of measuring opinion leadership:

1. The sociometric technique consists of asking group members to whom they go for advice and information about an idea.
2. Key informants, or persons selected as likely to know who the opinion leaders are, may be asked to designate them.
3. The self-designating technique consists of asking the respondent a series of questions to determine the degree to which he perceives himself to be an opinion leader.

According to Rogers (1962), an individual's perception of his own opinion leadership is what determines his behavior. Several researchers have reported satisfaction with the self-report technique of identifying opinion leaders within the framework of Rogers' diffusion model. Corey (1971) noted that self-designation is a more useful method of identifying groups of opinion leaders rather than single opinion leaders. By studying a large number of people, individual

errors in perception would be minimized. In a study of style dispersion and style leadership, Grindereing (1965) found that self-identified adopter categories were more successful in differentiating between early and late adopters than adopter categories based on silhouette purchased. Goodell (1967) compared the sociometric and self-report techniques of identifying fashion leaders. She reported that more significant differences were found between self-identified leaders and followers than between sociometrically determined active or passive leaders and followers. Shrank (1970) found the self-designating technique effective for identifying fashion innovators and fashion opinion leaders. She noted findings similar to those of Rogers, Grindereing, and Goodell, despite differences in the measures used.

Fashion and Fashion Leadership

Fashion is:

(a) described as a recurring cultural pattern which is intermediate in kind between fad and custom, (b) depicted in terms of self-individualization made possible by reconciling the desire to conform and to be different, (c) a matter of imitation of higher by lower social classes in the common scramble for unstable and superficial status symbols, (d) an expressive social movement which provides a channel for cultural change in people and hence for social change. (Gould and Kolb, 1964, p. 262)

While fashion can and does appear throughout the whole complex of human behavior, the term fashion in this research will be concerned with clothing-oriented behavior. The following definition illustrates this approach: "Fashion is a continuing process of change in the styles of dress that are accepted or followed by substantial groups of people at any given time and place" (Jarrow and Judelle, 1965, p. 3).

The traditional description of fashion diffusion is the "trickle-

down" theory, as posited by Thorstein Veblen in his Theory of the Leisure Class. Veblen (1899) argued that dress is a major object of conspicuous consumption, the means by which the leisure class demonstrates that it can afford not to work through wearing clothing which effectively prohibits work. Veblen traced the path of fashion from innovations made to clothing by the monied leisure class for purposes of differentiation, which are quickly copied by the socially ambitious middle class. The fashion reaches the lower class with the production of cheap imitations within the grasp of everyone. When a fashion no longer possesses the status of exclusiveness, it is abandoned by the leisure class, and a new mode is adopted.

Until quite recently, this model of vertical dispersion was commonly accepted among those who discussed fashion (Sapir, 1937; Robinson, 1961). King (1965) presented a concise summary of the arguments rebutting the relevance of Veblen's theory to today. He emphasized the levelling of the class system, resulting in a larger, more economically powerful middle class. Mass media promotes faster spread of fashion information to everyone. The development of manufacturing and merchandising within the fashion industry itself precludes vertical spread. Couturier and high fashion designs are adapted almost immediately to a wide range of price levels. The choice in design is enormous and the differentiating factor in price tends to be quality of material and craftsmanship rather than design.

Hartmann (1949), aware of the need for research in clothing, proposed that clothing serves as both a stimulus and a response. It acts as a stimulus to the wearer and the observer, and it articulates a response on the part of the wearer and the society to physiological,

social, and aesthetic needs.

Simmel (1957) asserted that fashion satisfies both the need of belonging by conforming and the need of differentiation from others. It is inherently necessary for man to be part of a group, to fit in with others. In order to partially accomplish this, he must look like the group; he therefore chooses clothing similar to that worn by the people with whom he associates. Having established himself as part of a group through conformity, man then wishes to be recognized as an individual. He yearns to express his particular preference and creative abilities. The individual may use dress as a means of self-expression, choosing clothing which is similar to that worn by his peers, but with small distinguishing features. Lang and Lang (1961) declared that fashion always involves a choice and that choice is the symbol of the self or personality. Kuzik (1973) noted that the basis of fashion demand is largely psychological and is continually shifting in the face of economic and social stimuli. Anspach discussed the beneficial aspects of fashion:

Fashion can protect us from psychologically grounded fears that are socially engendered. It protects us from obscurity; from ridicule if we are "different", or if we lack taste. It protects the anxious and immature inner self from outer attack. It allows the dependent personality to follow others and be relieved of responsibility. It supports the timid by making acceptable styles they would like to wear but lack the courage to try. A fashion which enhances self-esteem and makes us feel competitively equal or superior to our associates works for us and helps diminish anxiety. (Anspach, 1967, pp. 26-27)

Lang and Lang (1961) hypothesized that the motives of those who innovate a fashion are quite different from the motives of those who follow. Simmel (1957) believed that individuals who adopt a new fashion are viewed with envy and admiration, while persons who have a greater

need to identify with the group would be more comfortable following normative dress patterns. Blumer (1969) stated that the fashion conscious individual is fully aware of his behavior. The fashion innovator wants to be "in fashion" and must be knowledgeable about current fashion in order to deviate from it. Fashion leaders are defined as those who can influence fashion, understand the flow of taste of the times, and anticipate changes of taste in advance (Brenninkmeyer, 1963).

Considerable research has been done on the topic of fashion leadership. Janney (1941) studied fad and fashion leadership among college women over a period of two years. The majority of women did not originate fads but did follow them. Women who did not follow tended to be insensitive and unskillful in other social situations. The originators of fads were members of prestigious cliques, were generally leaders in other activities, and were popular with men.

The importance of fashion was emphasized in research done by Coblner (1950). The eighteen college women in the sample felt uncomfortable and self-conscious if they did not follow fashion. Coblner found that a person wearing the latest style in dress was admired and envied if she was a fashion leader, but if she was not seen as a fashion leader she was thought to be "showing off".

Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) found a strong correlation between their index of fashion leadership and fashion interest. The fashion leader was identified as young, single, gregarious, and concerned with her impression on others and with the interaction and integration among people and groups.

Glickman (1952) investigated clothing leadership among boys by

means of a sociometric questionnaire. He reported that clothing leadership was related but not identical to leadership in other areas. Those boys most likely to be looked upon as clothing leaders were those who were leaders in co-operative group activities and who saw in clothing symbols of status and acceptability.

Sohn (1950) asked fraternity members to name the students whose clothes they admired and whom they would consult about clothes. The only difference between clothing leaders and nonleaders was that clothing leaders were more apt to be leaders in other areas.

Grindereng (1965) identified fashion leaders by silhouette purchased and by self-report. Significant results were found only with the self-designation method. Early adopters were women with a high degree of fashion interest, inclined to use mass communications as sources of fashion information and relatively independent of normative referents. In contrast, late adopters showed a low level of fashion interest, used personal contacts and advertisements as sources of fashion information, and drew normative referents from relatives and close friends.

Goodell (1967) compared the sociometric and self-report techniques of identifying fashion leaders. The self-identification technique was more successful in differentiating leaders and followers. While fashion leaders, in general, were more interested in clothing, amount of social participation, source of fashion information and class rank did not distinguish between leaders and followers.

Kernaleguen (1968) made some generalizations about fashion leadership based on her study of creativity level, perceptual style, and peer perception of attitudes toward clothing. She found that fashion leaders

had lower body boundaries and were less creative than subjects who were not fashion leaders, but no differences were found in field dependence.

Shrank (1970) divided her sample of single college women into opinion leaders, innovators, dual leaders (both opinion leaders and innovators), and nonleaders. Respondents with high innovativeness scores tended to score high on the fashion opinion leadership measure. Innovators and nonleaders were significantly less positive in their attitude toward conformity than were opinion leaders and dual leaders. Dual leaders and opinion leaders had greater interest in clothing than either innovators or nonleaders.

Allen (1971) compared fashion leaders and nonleaders from a sociogram of adolescents. Leaders participated significantly more often in social activities than did nonleaders. Leaders scored higher on the personality factors of dominance and enthusiasm. Nonleaders scored higher on self-sufficiency. Allen concluded that adolescent fashion leaders and nonleaders were more similar than different in terms of personality factors.

Summers (1970) used Rogers' self-identification method to compare one thousand homemakers on clothing opinion leadership. Opinion leaders were younger, had more education, higher incomes, and higher occupational status. Opinion leaders displayed greater assertiveness and emotional stability, and perceived themselves as more likeable and less depressive. They scored higher in gregariousness and the factor of competitiveness-exhibitionism. They tended to be progressive, outgoing and susceptible to change. Opinion leaders read significantly more fashion magazines, scored higher on fashion knowledge, and were much more interested in women's clothing fashion than were nonleaders. Opinion leaders were

frequently recipients as well as transmitters of fashion information.

Research has been conducted on fashion innovation. Rogers (1962) stated that the characteristics of opinion leaders and innovators differ. White (1971) found that university women who deviated in a fashionable direction from the norms in dress were more oriented toward seeking rewards, more field independent, and psychologically more secure, while those who followed the norms sought to avoid punishment in their use of clothing, were more field dependent, and tended to be insecure.

Larsen (1972) also investigated fashionable deviation from the norm. She found that college men who wore their hair long were more field independent, and placed a lower value on conformity and recognition than subjects nondeviant in appearance.

Hillier (1971) studied innovators and non-innovators of the mid-skirt length at the University of Alberta. She found no differences in tolerance of ambiguity or socioeconomic status between innovators and non-innovators, but innovators had lower needs for order and deference and somewhat higher needs for autonomy and nurturance. Morton (1971) conducted a similar research investigation at Brigham Young University in Utah, U.S.A. Morton's innovators reported lower needs for deference and order and higher needs for autonomy and change, and greater tolerance of ambiguity than non-innovators but no difference in socioeconomic status was found.

Field Dependence

An individual behaves in response to his unique perceptions of himself, his self-concept, and the world in which he lives (Combs and Snygg, 1959). Gestalt psychologists were the first to recognize the

importance of perception to the understanding of human behavior. Every event is interpreted according to the relationship of the part to the whole or the figure-ground relationship. Differentiation and integration are the major components of perception (Witkin, 1962). The concept of field dependence is based upon differentiations of the figure-ground relationship. Witkin stated that a high level of differentiation implies clear separation of what is identified as belonging to the self and what is identified as being external to the self. The autonomous, defined self is one which controls functioning from within, in contrast to the relatively undifferentiated state which relies on external nurturance for maintenance. Integration refers to the form of functional relationships among system components and the form of relationships between the system and its surroundings. A high level of differentiation requires complex integration, but it does not imply effective integration (Witkin, 1962).

Witkin's concept of field dependence proposes that the degree to which an individual differentiates body cues from environmental cues is associated with cognitive and personality traits. Field dependence is the degree of ability to overcome the embedding context of the environment. The person with a more field-independent way of perceiving tends to experience his surroundings analytically with objects experienced as discrete from their backgrounds. The person with a more field-dependent way of perceiving tends to experience his surroundings in a relatively global fashion, passively conforming to the influence of the prevailing field or context (Witkin, 1962). Witkin (1954) pointed out that a perceptual style of such generality must affect the person's personality, his percept of himself, his view of others, and

his adjustment to situations; he concluded that the difference must be the same as between active and passive personalities. Field-dependent perceivers are characterized by passivity, social dependence, and submission to authority, while field-independent perceivers are characterized by activity, a capacity for organization, and a desire for conquest.

Field-dependent persons exhibit a similar lack of differentiation in experiencing their bodies, tending to draw human figures that lack articulation in the Draw-a-Person Test, another measure of field dependence. The self-concept is likely to be drawn from a social context rather than internally developed (Witkin, 1967). Witkin (1954) described the field-dependent person as having low self-esteem, difficulty in accepting himself, and a low evaluation of his body. The field-independent person possesses high self-esteem, self-acceptance, and confidence in the body.

Field-dependent and field-independent perceivers also differ in the way they cope with their impulses. The individual whose perception is field-dependent displays a lack of awareness of inner life; he fears aggressive and sexual impulses and lacks the ability to control these impulses. He experiences considerable anxiety which he has difficulty in regulating. The field-independent individual is aware of his inner life; he accepts aggressive and sexual urges and is effective in controlling them. He is less anxious and more able to regulate the anxiety he does experience (Witkin, 1954). Persons who perceive in a field-dependent manner frequently use global defenses such as repression and denial, suggestive of limited differentiation, whereas field-independent persons tend to use specialized defenses like

intellectualization, suggestive of developed differentiation (Witkin, 1967).

Gioioso (1971) explored the relationship between trait and state anxiety and perception. He administered the Manifest Anxiety Scale and the Test Anxiety Scale plus the perceptual measures of Closure Speed, Closure Flexibility, Perceptual Speed and Space Thinking to one hundred male subjects. He concluded that moderate levels of anxiety were associated with the highest levels of perceptual performance.

Britain (1971) hypothesized that an individual's cognitive style would be more influential than his level of anxiety in biasing his responses activated during stress. Field-independent subjects showed cardiac deceleration during exposure to threatening visual stimuli, reflecting an attitude of environmental acceptance, whereas field-dependent subjects showed cardiac acceleration, reflecting rejection of the same stimuli. Both high and low anxiety were positively related to initial cardiac acceleration under stress. Performance in a perceptual task under stressful conditions deteriorated for field-dependent subjects and improved for field-independent subjects.

Witkin (1967) used a battery of tests of field dependence for longitudinal and cross-sectional studies to test the stability of cognitive style from childhood to young adulthood. Results showed developmental changes in performance indicating extent of differentiation. There was a progressive increase in degree of field independence up to seventeen years. Children also showed a marked stability in relative performance within the context of developmental changes. Individuals were consistent in perceptual functioning at different ages.

Research has demonstrated sex differences in perception. Women

tend to be more field dependent than men, this difference occurring from the age of eight years. Kernaleguen (1973) supported this finding with a study of fifty-six college men and women selected on the basis of extreme scores on field dependence. Bieri (1960) noted that females who identified with the father were significantly more field-independent on the Embedded Figures Test than females who identified with the mother.

Studies have linked field-dependent behavior and conformity. Linton (1955) found field-dependent perception to be associated with conformity in autokinetic and attitudinal change measures. Rosner (1957) reported that subjects who conformed in a group pressure situation tended to be more field-dependent. McCarrey, Dayhaw and Chagnon (1971) tested eighty male graduate students and found evidence to support the hypothesis that magnitude of attitude shift toward congruence was inversely related to extent of psychological differentiation. No evidence was found to support an inverse relationship between need for approval and field dependence. Bell (1964) noted that subjects who were punishment-oriented in a learning situation were more field-dependent.

Studies involving field dependence have been conducted in the area of Clothing and Textiles. Kernaleguen (1968) investigated the effect of body-field differentiation on the ability to produce creative thinking, popularity within one's group, and peer perception of attitudes toward clothing. Field dependence, as measured by the Embedded Figures Test, was related to verbal fluency and elaboration (field-independent subjects being more creative), but not to peer perception of attitudes toward clothing. However, Kernaleguen and Compton (1968) proposed that field dependence may relate more to motivation than to

actual behavior; that is, field-dependent and field-independent women may both be fashion leaders but for different reasons.

Baer (1970) explored the significance of personality factors and perceptual style for the identification and evaluation of line and design in clothing. The Embedded Figures Test was used to measure field dependence. Relatively field-independent persons tended to possess a greater ability to recall silhouette and the more complex areas of design. The field-independent subjects preferred structural line in clothing and were more accurate in judging the effects of line illusions upon the figure.

White (1970) studied the relationship of perceptual and personality variables to deviance in dress, as measured by length of skirts worn by college women. Deviant subjects were more field-independent on the Rod and Frame Test, more secure and more oriented to seeking rewards and being dressed differently than were non-deviants.

Larsen (1972) used Gordon's Interpersonal Survey of Values and the Rod and Frame Test to compare men who were deviant and non-deviant in hair length. She found that deviant college men were more field-independent, placed a lower value on conformity (being socially correct), a lower value on recognition (attracting favorable notice), and a higher value on independence (doing things one's own way), than subjects non-deviant in appearance. Conversely, men who adhered to accepted norms of hair length were more field-dependent, and placed a higher value on both conformity and recognition, but a lower value on independence.

Locus of Control

The concept of locus of control or internal-external control of reinforcement is derived from social learning theory. The social learning approach views man's behavior as resulting from continual reciprocal interaction between himself and the environment (Geiwitz, 1969). Personality is defined as, "a term or construct describing the aspect of a unified, completely organized person that has to do with his characteristic modes of behaving or of interpreting the world in which he lives" (Rotter, 1954, p. 82). Rotter (1954) viewed the study of personality as the study of learned behavior, behavior that changes with experience. According to social learning theory, man's behavior is always directional, and determined by his goals. An individual responds with those behaviors that he has learned will lead to the greatest satisfaction in a given situation. Each person gradually associates certain goal objects and internal conditions with unlearned or inborn satisfactions (Rotter, 1971a). In order to understand a person's behavior, one must consider not only his needs, but his expectancies and the value his needs have for him. Expectancy is the anticipation that the person's needs will be fulfilled (Rotter, 1954). Expectancies influence the person's attitudes toward other people, his anticipation of and response to reinforcement, the way in which he solves problems, and a multitude of other facets of daily life. Rotter (1971a) described two generalized expectancies--that of interpersonal trust, and that of internal versus external control of reinforcement.

Rotter (1966) stated that an event regarded by some persons as a reinforcement may be differently perceived by others. He proposed that this reaction may be due to the degree to which the individual perceives

that the reward is contingent upon his own behavior versus the degree to which he feels the reward controlled by forces outside of himself and may occur independently of his own actions. When a person perceives events as the result of luck, or under the control of powerful others, this is labelled a belief in external control. If the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his own actions or characteristics, this is termed a belief in internal control.

If a reinforcement acts to strengthen the expectancy that a particular behavior will be rewarded in the future, it follows that when the reinforcement is not seen as contingent upon the person's behavior, then its occurrence will not strengthen an expectancy as much as when the reward is interpreted as contingent (Rotter, 1966). A generalized belief or expectancy regarding the nature of the causal relationship between one's own behavior and its consequences might affect a variety of life situations.

Considerable research has been done on the construct of internal-external control of reinforcement, but only research directly related to the variables under study will be discussed. Rotter (1966) found no relationship between an individual measure of internal-external control and the Gottshaldt Figures Test, a measure of field dependence.

Borden and Hendrick (1973) found that internal subjects attributed stronger attitudes to other students, while external subjects were more likely to expect that other students would be influenced by the surrounding circumstances. DeBolt, Liska and Allen (1973) constructed small task groups composed of internals and externals and sociometrically measured actual task leadership. Internals comprised 67% of the task leaders and only 25% of the followers.

Joe (1971) reviewed the literature on locus of control and suggested that externals describe themselves as anxious, less able to cope with frustration, and more concerned with fear of failure than with achievement. Conversely, internals describe themselves as more concerned with achievement, more constructive in overcoming frustration, and less anxious. Butterfield (1964), using the Achievement Anxiety Test, found that as locus of control became more external, debilitating anxiety increased, and facilitating anxiety decreased. Feather (1967) noted a significant tendency for externally scoring subjects of both sexes to report more debilitating anxiety and neurotic symptoms. Watson (1967) reported a positive correlation between external control and debilitating anxiety and a negative correlation between external control and facilitating anxiety.

Anxiety

Anxiety is defined in the Dictionary of Social Sciences as:

a reaction of apprehension ranging from uneasiness to complete panic preceded by a real or symbolic condition of threat which the person perceives diffusely and to which he reacts with an intensity that tends to be disproportionate. (Gould and Kolb, 1964, p. 30)

Gould and Kolb (1964) noted that perhaps the most appropriate use of the concept of normal anxiety is to denote a reaction of mild apprehension and uneasiness in relation to the achievement of a vital but somewhat vague goal.

Anxiety in its milder forms is a universal phenomenon with both disintegrative and constructive facets (Fromm-Reichmann, 1959). Items in most anxiety questionnaires are unidimensional; they measure the presence or absence of debilitating anxiety. When a subject receives a

low score on an anxiety test, it is inferred that the anxiety-provoking cues in the environment act as stimulants to raise the subject's general drive level, thus improving his performance (Sarason, Mandler and Craighill, 1952). Alpert (1962) argued that this approach does not account for the subject whose anxiety does not affect his performance. The Achievement Anxiety Test (AAT) was designed to measure the presence and intensity of both kinds of anxiety responses, those which aid performance and those which interfere with it. If a person scored low on both the facilitating and debilitating components of the scale, his test performance would be considered to be unaffected by anxiety-provoking cues. Because the facilitating effects of anxiety are measured independently, rather than inferred from the absence of negative responses, the AAT allows for the presence or absence of either or both facilitating and debilitating anxiety. Dember, Nairne and Miller (1962) conducted a validation study of the Alpert-Haber Achievement Anxiety Test. They indicated that facilitating anxiety was positively correlated with scores on a standardized achievement test and course grades, while debilitating anxiety was negatively correlated with these scores.

Cattell and Scheier (1963) cited studies showing that subjects with higher anxiety reported less favorable views of themselves. Gergen and Marlowe (1970) reported that under stress, a person low in self-regard may begin more rapidly to demonstrate anxious behavior. Because anxiety may interfere with cognitive processes and problem-solving, this person may also be more receptive to the opinions of others. Dowdeswell (1972) found that anxiety was related to clothing values of social acceptance and social recognition for pregnant women. Ryan (1966) noted that subjects who reported a high interest in clothing tended to be more

anxious and to emphasize overt patterns of adjustment.

Witkin (1962) asserted that field-dependent persons are more apt to be anxious than field-independent subjects. In contrast, Sarason (1960) found that high anxious children performed better than low anxious children on the Embedded Figures Test, a measure of field dependence. He hypothesized that EFT favors the dependent subject because he can ask to see the figure again and is told whether his response is right or wrong. Ruebush (1960), following up Sarason's findings, reported that boys who scored high on anxiety and who achieved low or medium IQ scores, performed better on the EFT than boys who scored low on anxiety. However, at high IQ levels, high anxious subjects were inferior in performance to low anxious subjects. Gioioso (1971) stated that moderate levels of anxiety are associated with the highest levels of perceptual performance. Iscoe and Carden (1961) found that field-independent girls were less popular and more anxious, while field-independent boys were more popular and less anxious.

Butterfield (1964) indicated that debilitating anxiety was positively correlated with external locus of control when facilitating anxiety was partialled out, and facilitating anxiety was negatively correlated with external control when debilitating anxiety was partialled out. Feather (1967) noted that more debilitating anxiety and neurotic symptoms were reported by externally controlled subjects. Watson (1967) also reported a positive correlation between debilitating anxiety and external control and a negative correlation between facilitating anxiety and external control.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURE

Included in the methods and procedure section are the theoretical framework, hypotheses, definition of terms, selection of the sample, description of the instruments, directional rating of variables, and methods to be used for analysis of the data.

Theoretical Framework

The basis for this study is Rogers' theory of diffusion of innovation. Rogers (1962) proposed that individuals can be categorized according to the time they adopt an innovation, and furthermore, that individuals in these categories exhibit characteristic behavior traits. Opinion leaders are defined as those individuals from whom others seek advice and information (Rogers, 1962). Rogers (1962) stated that opinion leaders are found in all facets of life, including clothing. Research done by Witkin, Rotter and Alpert is also incorporated into the theoretical framework. Witkin (1962) noted that the mode of perception with respect to the environmental field is associated with cognitive and personality traits. Perception is viewed as a continuum from field dependence or reliance on the environmental field, to field independence or self-reliance. The field-dependent person lacks an internal frame of reference. Because he is highly vulnerable to external forces, he will readily conform. The field-independent person tends to be isolated from others and thus less influenced by social stimuli. He is less likely to conform because he lacks the motivation to do so (Witkin,

1954). Rogers (1962) stated that the successful opinion leader must combine the traits of innovativeness and conformity. Rotter (1954), a proponent of social learning theory, urged that a person's behavior must be considered not only in terms of his personality needs, but also his expectancy that those needs will be met. The expectancy that events are contingent upon a person's action is labelled a belief in internal control. The expectancy that events will occur independently or in spite of a person's actions is termed a belief in external control. Alpert (1962) developed a test of anxiety which measures extent of facilitating anxiety (anxiety which aids performance) and debilitating anxiety (anxiety which interferes with performance). Witkin (1962) reported that field-dependent or global perceivers are more apt to show anxiety than field-independent or analytical perceivers. Studies have shown that as locus of control becomes more external, facilitating anxiety decreases and debilitating anxiety increases (Butterfield, 1964; Feather, 1967; Watson, 1967).

Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses were formulated to be tested using Pearson product-moment correlation:

1. There will be a significant correlation between fashion opinion leadership and
 - a. field dependence
 - b. internal-external control
 - c. facilitating anxiety
 - d. debilitating anxiety.
2. There will be a significant correlation between field dependence and

- a. internal-external control
 - b. facilitating anxiety
 - c. debilitating anxiety.
3. There will be a significant correlation between internal-external control and
- a. facilitating anxiety
 - b. debilitating anxiety.
4. There will be a significant correlation between facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety.

The following research hypotheses were formulated to be tested using partial correlation:

5. There will be a significant correlation between fashion opinion leadership and field dependence when the following are held constant:
- a. internal-external control
 - b. facilitating anxiety
 - c. debilitating anxiety.
6. There will be a significant correlation between fashion opinion leadership and internal-external control when the following are held constant:
- a. field dependence
 - b. facilitating anxiety
 - c. debilitating anxiety.
7. There will be a significant correlation between fashion opinion leadership and facilitating anxiety when the following are held constant:
- a. field dependence
 - b. internal-external control
 - c. debilitating anxiety.

8. There will be a significant correlation between fashion opinion leadership and debilitating anxiety when the following are held constant:

- a. field dependence
- b. internal-external control
- c. facilitating anxiety.

9. There will be a significant correlation between field dependence and internal-external control when the following are held constant:

- a. facilitating anxiety
- b. debilitating anxiety.

10. There will be a significant correlation between field dependence and facilitating anxiety when the following are held constant:

- a. internal-external control
- b. debilitating anxiety.

11. There will be a significant correlation between field dependence and debilitating anxiety when the following are held constant:

- a. internal-external control
- b. facilitating anxiety.

12. There will be a significant correlation between internal-external control and facilitating anxiety when the following are held constant:

- a. field dependence
- b. debilitating anxiety.

13. There will be a significant correlation between internal-external control and debilitating anxiety when the following are held constant:

- a. field dependence
- b. facilitating anxiety.

Definition of Terms

Fashion opinion leader is an individual who is active in influencing others for the approval or disapproval of new ideas, specifically, fashion ideas. Operationally, fashion opinion leadership is defined as the score on Rogers' self-designating Opinion Leadership Scale.

Field dependence is the mode of perception with respect to the environmental field. The mode of perception reflecting an ability to deal with the field in an analytical fashion is designated as field independence. The contrasting way of perceiving which reflects submission to the dominant organization of the field is termed field dependence. Operationally defined, field dependence is the mean of deviations of the rod from perpendicular on twelve trials of Witkin's Rod and Frame Test.

Locus of control is a generalized expectancy regarding the nature of the causal relationship between one's own behavior and its consequences. The perception of events as controlled independently of a person's own actions is termed a belief in external control. The perception of events as contingent upon, or resulting from, a person's own actions is termed a belief in internal control. Operationally defined, locus of control is the score on Rotter's Internal-External Control Scale.

Anxiety is:

a reaction of apprehension ranging from uneasiness to complete panic, preceded by a real or symbolic condition of threat which the person perceives diffusely and to which he reacts with an intensity that tends to be disproportionate. (Gould and Kolb, 1964, p. 30)

Facilitating anxiety is anxiety which aids performance, in contrast to debilitating anxiety which interferes with performance. Operationally

defined, facilitating anxiety is the score on the nine facilitating questions of the Achievement Anxiety Test, and debilitating anxiety is the score on the ten debilitating questions of the Achievement Anxiety Test.

Selection of the Sample

The sample consisted of 102 university women. Students were randomly selected from the total female population at the University of Alberta who were listed in the 1972-73 Student Directory, and contacted by telephone. Since there were 6704 female students in attendance at the University, every sixty-seventh woman listed and then every thirty-third woman listed was telephoned until one hundred subjects were obtained. Volunteers were requested to participate in a research study for the author's master's thesis; participation would require about 45 minutes and they would be reimbursed two dollars for their time. Subjects were reassured that the testing was non-threatening, anonymous, and confidential, but no further information was given until the subjects had completed all parts of the testing.

Description of the Instruments

Background Information

1. age
2. year in university
3. faculty
4. membership in organizations
5. identification with mother or father.

Opinion Leadership Scale

The scale consists of seven questions designed to elicit the individual's self-identified leadership category. Studies have yielded a split-half reliability of .703 (Rogers and Cartano, 1962). Evidences of validity are shown by comparisons with other methods of designating opinion leaders. In general, these correlations have been positive but far from perfect, ranging from +.225 to +.640 (Rogers and Cartano, 1962). The questions in the Opinion Leadership Scale are left open so that it can be used to investigate opinion leadership in a variety of areas. For this study, the scale was adapted to measure clothing fashion opinion leadership.

Rod and Frame Test

The apparatus consists of a metal box with a circular window in which appears a luminous square figure which may be tilted to the left or right, and a luminous rod which pivots at the center and moves independently of the frame. The test is conducted in a darkened room and the luminous rod and frame, presented in tilted directions, is all that confronts the subject.

"With the frame remaining tilted, the subject is required by his instructions to the examiner to adjust the rod to the position which he perceives as upright" (Witkin, 1962, p. 36). To complete the task successfully, it is necessary for the subject to extract the rod from the tilted frame through reference to body position. The mean of deviations for twelve trials is computed for each subject. High scores are indicative of field dependence and low scores are indicative of field independence.

Test-retest reliabilities of RFT over a three-year interval was .84 for men and .66 for women (Witkin, 1962, p. 40). Adeval and McGough (1968) found retest reliability of .86 over a four-year interval for eighty-six male subjects. Corrected odd-even correlation of .92 (Gardner, Jackson and Messick, 1960) and .89 (Loeff, 1961) were obtained.

Internal-External Control Scale

The Internal-External Control Scale is a twenty-nine item, forced-choice test, including six filler items intended to make somewhat more ambiguous the purpose of the test. The test is a measure of generalized expectancy; it is concerned with the subject's belief about the nature of the world, or more specifically, his expectations about how reinforcement is controlled (Rotter, 1966). The subject reads a pair of statements and then indicates with which of the two statements he most strongly agrees. The scores range from zero (the consistent belief that individuals can influence the environment, that rewards come from internal forces) to twenty-three (the belief that all rewards come from external sources) (Rotter, 1971).

Internal consistency estimates range from .65 to .79 (Rotter, 1966). Test-retest reliabilities over a one-month interval were .60 for males and .83 for females. For a two-month interval, test-retest correlations were .49 for males and .61 for females, but these correlations may have been lowered by administering the first test to a group and the second one individually (Rotter, 1966). Hersch and Scheibe (1967) reported test-retest coefficients ranging from .43 to .84 over a two-month interval.

Two studies using different measurements of internal-external control attest to the construct validity of the I-E scale. Adams-Webber

(1963) found a significant relationship of his story-completion test to the Internal-External Control Scale. Cardi (1963) developed a measure of internal-external control from a semi-structured interview and obtained a correlation of .61 with the I-E Scale (Rotter, 1966).

Achievement Anxiety Test

The Achievement Anxiety Test consists of two independent scales: a facilitating scale of nine items based on a prototype of the item, "Anxiety helps me to do better during examination and tests"; and a debilitating scale of ten items based on a prototype of the item, "Anxiety interferes with my performance during examinations and tests" (Alpert, 1960). The test is made up of twenty-six items, with facilitating, debilitating, and neutral buffer items randomly mixed. Subjects respond to each question on a five-point scale, indicating the degree to which they agree with the statement.

In the development of the scale, items were correlated with criteria such as grade-point average and final examination grades, and with each other. In an attempt to minimize the intercorrelation of the scales without affecting their validity coefficients, those items were retained which were highly correlated with the criteria but which were not correlated with each other. The final correlation between the facilitating and debilitating scales was $-.37$ (Alpert, 1960). Test-retest reliabilities for a ten-week interval were $.83$ for the facilitating scale and $.87$ for the debilitating scale. Over an eight-month period, reliability coefficients were $.75$ for the facilitating scale and $.76$ for the debilitating scale (Alpert, 1960). Dember, Nairne and Miller (1962) reported that facilitating and debilitating anxiety were correlated $-.65$

for males and $-.42$ for females. They indicated that scores on the AAT were not as useful for predicting course grades for females as they were for males. Watson (1967) found a correlation of $-.44$ between facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety for females.

Directional Rating of Variables

Table 1 gives the directional rating of all variables and the possible range of scores. The factors of facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety on the Achievement Anxiety Test are scored independently of each other.

Table 1. Directional rating of variables

Variable	Range	High Score	Low Score
Fashion Opinion Leadership Scale	0-27	high leadership	low leadership
Field Dependence	0-28	field dependence	field independence
Internal-External Control	0-23	external control	internal control
Achievement Anxiety Test			
Facilitating Anxiety	0-45	high facilitating anxiety	low facilitating anxiety
Debilitating Anxiety	0-50	high debilitating anxiety	low debilitating anxiety

Analysis of Data

Descriptive Analysis

Background information from all subjects was coded and frequency distributions of this information were tabulated. Correlations between background data and research variables are presented. Tables show the mean scores, ranges and standard deviations for all variables, and the comparison of mean scores with established norms whenever possible.

Statistical Analysis

Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4 were analyzed using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient with 100 degrees of freedom, to provide a measure of relationship between variables. Hypotheses 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13 were analyzed using partial correlation with 97 degrees of freedom, to provide a measure of relationship between variables when the other variables in the study were controlled. A two-tail test was used to determine significance of the correlation coefficients. For statistical results, levels of significance are: $p < .001$, $p < .01$ are highly significant; $p < .05$ is significant; $p < .10$ approaches significance.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

This chapter contains the results of the descriptive and statistical analyses obtained on data from: Opinion Leadership Scale, Rod and Frame Test, Internal-External Control Scale, Achievement Anxiety Test, and background information about the subjects. The descriptive analysis is organized as follows: background information; ranges, means and standard deviation for all variables; comparison of means and standard deviations with established norms and results of other research; analysis of background data and research variables. The statistical analysis is divided into two sections: results from Pearson product-moment correlation; results from partial correlation. Finally, a statement pertaining to the acceptance and/or rejection of hypotheses is given.

Characteristics of the Sample

Subjects of the study were 102 female students at the University of Alberta, randomly selected from the total female population listed in the 1972-73 Student Directory, who agreed to participate as a result of a telephone interview. The students were very co-operative, but replacements were made for those women who could not be contacted, and who could not or did not wish to participate. Approximately 15% of those contacted refused to participate. Background information collected included age, year in university, faculty, membership in organizations, and identification with mother or father. Table 2 gives the frequency and percentage distributions of the above data.

Table 2. Frequency and percentage distribution of 102 university women on background data

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
Age	N=101	
17	4	3.9
18	28	27.7
19	31	30.7
20	17	16.8
21	10	9.9
22-30	8	7.9
31-38	3	2.9
Total	101	100.0
Year	N=102	
1	45	44.1
2	41	40.2
3	9	8.8
4	4	3.9
5	3	2.9
Total	102	100.0
Faculty	N=100	
Arts	25	25.0
Education	22	22.0
Science	20	20.0
Household Economics	13	13.0
Physical Education	7	7.0
Agriculture	4	4.0
Pharmacy	2	2.0
Nursing	2	2.0
Rehabilitation Medicine	2	2.0
Dental Hygiene	2	2.0
Graduate Studies	1	1.0
Total	100	100.0
Organizations	N=101	
0	51	50.5
1	31	30.7
2	14	13.9
3	5	5.0
Total	101	100.0
Identification	N=101	
Mother	64	63.4
Father	37	36.6
Total	101	100.0

Note: Frequencies differ from the total N=102 because of missing observations.

Subjects ranged in age from 17 to 38 years. Of the total sample, 4% were 17 years old, 28% were 18, 31% were 19, 17% were 20, 10% were 21, 8% were 22 to 30, and 3% were 31 to 38 years old.

Most of the participants were in first or second year in university. Forty-four percent were first year students, 40% were in second year, 9% were in third year, 4% were in fourth year, and 3% were fifth year students.

A wide range of faculties across campus was represented. Twenty-five percent of the sample were in Arts, 22% were in Education, 20% were in Science, 13% were in Household Economics, and 7% were in Physical Education. Smaller numbers of subjects were from faculties with lower populations and/or lower female populations, with 4% in Agriculture, 2% in each of Pharmacy, Nursing, Rehabilitation Medicine, and Dental Hygiene, and 1% in Graduate Studies.

The majority of students in the sample were members of no organization, 51% falling into this category. Thirty-one percent belonged to one organization, 14% belonged to two organizations, and 5% were members of three organizations.

Subjects were asked whether, in general, they identified with their father or their mother. Sixty-three percent identified with their mother, while 37% identified with their father.

Ranges, Means and Standard Deviations

The ranges, means and standard deviations for the Fashion Opinion Leadership Scale, Rod and Frame Test, Internal-External Control Scale and Achievement Anxiety Test are recorded in Table 3.

Table 3. Ranges, means and standard deviations on all variables for 102 university women

Variable	Possible Range	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
Fashion Opinion Leadership Scale	0-27	8-21	14.16	2.94
Rod and Frame Test	0-28	.77-6.22	2.58	1.14
Internal-External Control Scale	0-23	2-19	11.23	4.22
Achievement Anxiety Test				
Facilitating Anxiety	0-45	16-37	26.13	4.13
Debilitating Anxiety	0-50	13-42	28.51	5.62

Comparison with Norms

No norms were available for Rogers' Opinion Leadership Scale or the Alpert-Haber Achievement Anxiety Test. The mean and standard deviation on the Rod and Frame Test for 102 university women are reported in Table 4, and these are compared to recently reported findings for university women by White (1970) and Waisman (1973). The sample in this study appears more similar to White's (1970) group of non-deviants than to Waisman's (1973) sample from the same university.

Table 5 presents the mean and standard deviation for 102 university women on the Internal-External Control Scale. These results are compared with norms published by Rotter (1966) and scores reported by Hersch and Scheibe (1967) and DeBolt, Liska and Love (1973). The sample in the present study appears to be more external than those in

Table 4. Comparison of means and standard deviations on the Rod and Frame Test

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation
Brett (1973) university women (N=102) University of Alberta	2.58	1.14
Waisman (1973) university women (N=39) University of Alberta	3.22	1.26
White (1970) university women Utah State University		
Deviant (N=20)	1.74	1.34
Non-deviant (N=20)	2.78	0.68

research done by Rotter (1966), Hersch and Scheibe (1967) and DeBolt, Liska and Love (1973).

Table 5. Comparison of means and standard deviations on the Internal-External Control Scale

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation
Brett (1973) university women (N=102)	11.23	4.22
Rotter (1966) university women (N=605)	8.42	4.06
Hersch and Scheibe (1967) university women (N=79)	9.54	4.20
DeBolt, Liska and Love (1973) university women (N=67)	9.77	3.24

Analysis of Background Data and Research Variables

In order to more adequately describe the sample, the association between background data and the research data were analyzed using Pearson product-moment correlation and analysis of variance. Table 6 reports the correlation between age, year in university, membership in organizations, identification with mother or father, and fashion opinion leadership, internal-external control, and field dependence for the sample. Table 6 indicates that fashion opinion leadership

Table 6. Correlations between background data and research variables for 102 university women

Variables	Background Data			
	Age	Year	Organizations	Identification
Fashion Opinion Leadership	-.027	.126	-.085	.051
Internal-External Control	-.084			
Field Dependence	.143			-.091

$^{\circ}p < .10$	$r_{.90} (100df) = .164$
$*p < .05$	$r_{.95} (100df) = .195$
$**p < .01$	$r_{.995} (100df) = .254$
$***p < .001$	$r_{.9995} (100df) = .321$

showed no significant correlation with age, year in university, membership in organizations, or identification with mother or father. Internal-external locus of control showed no significant correlation with age. There was no significant correlation between field dependence and age or identification with mother or father.

A one-way ANOV was used to determine if a significant difference

existed among group means in each faculty for fashion opinion leadership, field dependence, and locus of control. Table 7 gives the results of the analysis of variance. Faculty means for fashion opinion leadership were found to differ significantly, with Household Economics students having the highest scores, followed by Physical Education students, then Arts and Education students with similar scores, and Science students having the lowest scores for fashion opinion leadership. The difference among faculties for field dependence approached significance, with Education students being the most field independent, followed by Physical Education and Science students, and Arts and Household Economics students being more field dependent. Differences among faculty means for locus of control were not significant.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation

Association between variables was analyzed using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r). This measure imposes limits of +1.0 and -1.0 which represent a perfect direct correlation or inverse correlation respectively between variables. The correlation coefficients (r) were compared to the appropriate values in a table of critical values of the Pearson r , to determine significance.

Table 8 is an intercorrelation matrix showing the correlation coefficients of all variables. This table reports that scores for fashion opinion leadership correlated negatively with level of facilitating anxiety, and positively with level of debilitating anxiety, both correlations being significant at the .001 level. Fashion opinion leadership showed no significant correlation with field dependence or internal-external control of reinforcement. Field dependence was not

Table 7. Analysis of variance comparing means for fashion opinion leadership, field dependence, and internal-external control by faculty for 86 university women

Variable	Treatment Means				Mean Squares		F-Ratio (4,82df)
	Arts N=25	Science N=20	Education N=22	Household Economics N=13	Physical Education N=7	Between	Within
Fashion Opinion Leadership	14.24	12.30	14.55	16.54	15.14	37.88	7.64
Field Dependence	2.94	2.44	2.03	2.95	2.36	3.04	1.28
Internal-External Control	11.92	10.44	10.73	10.77	11.86	8.44	17.64

^op<.10
^{*}p<.05
^{**}p<.01
^{***}p<.001

F.90 (4,82df) = 2.01
 F.95 (4,82df) = 2.48
 F.99 (4,82df) = 3.33
 F.999 (4,82df) = 5.05

Note: Total frequency differs from N=102 because rest of sample distributed in frequencies too small to compare by ANOV

Table 8. Intercorrelation matrix for fashion opinion leadership, field dependence, locus of control and anxiety for 102 university women

Variable	Fashion Opinion Leadership	Field Dependence	Internal-External Control	Anxiety	
				Facilitating	Debilitating
Fashion Opinion Leadership	1.000	-.024	.095	-.369***	.381***
Field Dependence		1.000	.102	.041	.142
Internal-External Control			1.000	-.175°	.381***
Anxiety					
Facilitating				1.000	-.549***
Debilitating					1.000

°p<.10

*p<.05

**p<.01

***p<.001

r.90 (100df) = .164
 r.95 (100df) = .195
 r.995 (100df) = .254
 r.9995 (100df) = .321

correlated with locus of control, level of facilitating anxiety, or level of debilitating anxiety. External control showed a negative correlation approaching significance, with level of facilitating anxiety, and a positive correlation, significant at the .001 level, with level of debilitating anxiety. Level of facilitating anxiety was negatively correlated with level of debilitating anxiety, significant at the .001 level.

Partial Correlation

Further analysis of possible association between variables was performed, using partial correlation. This technique is a variation of Pearson product-moment correlation which statistically controls other variables while determining the correlation between two variables under study. If the partial correlation is significantly smaller than the original simple correlation, then it is assumed that the variables controlled may have inflated the simple correlation.

Tables 9, 10 and 11 compare the simple and partial correlations for fashion opinion leadership, field dependence, locus of control, and anxiety. No significant findings resulted from analysis of the data using partial correlation.

Table 9. Simple and partial correlation for fashion opinion leadership and field dependence, internal-external control, facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety for 102 university women

Variable	Fashion Opinion Leadership					
	Simple Correlation	Partial Correlation Controlling for:				
RFT	-.024	I-E Con -.034	FacAnx -.042	DebAnx -.068	I-E, Fac, Deb -.059	
I-E Con	.059	RFT .098	FacAnx .033	DebAnx .016	RFT, Fac, Deb .002	
FacAnx	-.369***	RFT -.371***	I-E Con -.359***	DebAnx -.264**	RFT, I-E, Deb -.262**	
DebAnx	.281**	RFT .293**	I-E Con .272**	FacAnx .108	RFT, I-E, Fac .110	
°p<.10 *p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001						
		Simple Correlation		Partial Correlation		
		r.90 (100df) = .164		r.90 (97df) = .166		
		r.95 (100df) = .195		r.95 (97df) = .197		
		r.995 (100df) = .254		r.995 (97df) = .257		
		r.9995 (100df) = .321		r.9995 (97df) = .325		

Table 10.: Simple and partial correlations for field dependence and internal-external control, facilitating anxiety, and debilitating anxiety for 102 university women

Variable	Field Dependence				
	Simple Correlation	Partial Correlation Controlling for:			
I-E Con	.102	---	FacAnx .097	DebAnx .052	Fac, Deb .051
FacAnx	.041	I-E Con .024	---	DebAnx .045	I-E, Deb .042
DebAnx	.141	I-E Con .112	FacAnx .143	---	I-E, Fac .118
°p<.10 *p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001					
		Simple Correlation			Partial Correlation
		r.90 (100df) = .164			r.90 (97df) = .166
		r.95 (100df) = .195			r.95 (97df) = .197
		r.995 (100df) = .254			r.995 (97df) = .257
		r.9995 (100df) = .321			r.9995 (97df) = .325

Table 11. Simple and partial correlations for internal-external control and facilitating anxiety, and debilitating anxiety for 102 university women

Variable	Internal-External Control			
	Simple Correlation	Partial Correlation Controlling for:		
FacAnx	-.175°	RFT -.172°	DebAnx .044	RFT, Deb .041
DebAnx	.381***	RFT .372***	FacAnx .345***	RFT, Fac .337***

°p < .10

*p < .05

**p < .01

***p < .001

Simple Correlation

r.90 (100df) = .164

r.95 (100df) = .195

r.995 (100df) = .254

r.9995 (100df) = .321

Partial Correlation

r.90 (97df) = .166

r.95 (97df) = .197

r.995 (97df) = .257

r.9995 (97df) = .325

CHAPTER V

INTERPRETATION

The interpretation of the findings is discussed in light of the theoretical framework and objectives delineated for this study. The theoretical framework was based on Rogers' theory of diffusion of innovation. Rogers proposed that individuals can be categorized according to the time they adopt an innovation and, furthermore, that individuals in these categories exhibit characteristic behavior traits. Opinion leaders are the persons from whom others seek advice and information, and can be found in all spheres of life, including clothing. Research by Witkin on field dependence, Rotter on locus of control, and Alpert on anxiety was incorporated into the theoretical framework. Witkin noted that the mode of perception with respect to the environmental field is associated with cognitive and personality traits. Perception is viewed as a continuum from field dependence or reliance on the environmental field, to field independence or self-reliance. Rotter urged that a person's behavior must be considered not only in terms of his personality needs, but also his expectations that these needs will be met. Rotter termed the expectancy that events will occur independently of an individual's own actions a belief in external control. The expectancy that events are contingent upon the person's own actions is termed a belief in internal control. Alpert developed a test of anxiety which measures level of facilitating anxiety, or anxiety which aids performance, as well as debilitating anxiety, anxiety which hinders performance.

In order to describe the sample more fully, background data of age, year in university, faculty, membership in organizations, and identification with mother or father were collected and correlated with the research variables. No significant correlation was found between age and fashion opinion leadership, field dependence, or locus of control. This is reasonable since the students in the sample were a relatively homogeneous group with respect to age. Likewise, no significant correlation resulted between year in university and the variables under study.

Extent of fashion opinion leadership was found to differ significantly among faculties. It was expected that Household Economics students, because of their choice of field of study, might have a higher interest in clothing and thus tend to be fashion opinion leaders. This was found to be the case. Montgomery and Silk (1971) reported that people tend to be opinion leaders in areas of high interest. However, it is quite possible that the self-designating method selected a disproportionate number of Household Economics students as fashion opinion leaders. Household Economics students might, because of their reputed professional knowledge and capabilities, be asked questions about fashion, and feel compelled to give an opinion, whether or not they were, in fact, fashion opinion leaders. A difference approaching significance was found for field dependence among faculties, with Education students being the most field independent. No explanation can be offered for this finding. Differences among faculty means for locus of control were not significant.

No significant correlation was found between fashion opinion leadership and membership in organizations. Research by Rogers (1962)

and Summers (1970) suggested that opinion leaders tend to be more gregarious and thus to join more organizations. The majority of the sample in the present study belonged to no organizations. It may be that, due to differing stages in the life cycle and living under different conditions (students have contact with peers every day and several times a day), formal organizations are less important and less necessary to University of Alberta students than to the farmers and housewives of the previously cited studies.

The correlation between identification with mother or father and field dependence did not reach significance. This is contrary to the finding of Bieri (1960) that females who identified with the father were significantly more field independent than females who identified with the mother. It was speculated that females who identified with the mother might be more likely to be fashion opinion leaders, but again, this correlation was not significant.

The participants in the present study appeared to be more field independent than the women in Waisman's sample, collected from the same university at approximately the same time. This difference may be due to the larger sample size in the present study. In addition, since femininity has been found to be related to field dependence, the fact that Waisman's sample scored significantly higher on femininity measured by the California Psychological Inventory than did subjects in this study (Kernaleguen, 1973) may account for the discrepancy. Subjects in the current study obtained higher scores on external control than those in research by Rotter (1966) and DeBolt, Liska and Love (1973). However, Rotter (1971) reported that the average score for university students on the Internal-External Control Scale was then

about eleven, and that university students were becoming more external.

The first major objective of the study was to investigate fashion opinion leadership in relation to field dependence. The correlation between fashion opinion leadership and field dependence was negligible. Rogers (1962) stated that the successful opinion leader must combine the traits of innovativeness and conformity. White (1970) and Larsen (1972) reported that college students who deviated in an extreme but fashionable direction tended to be field independent. Kernalleguen (1968) found that field dependence was not related to peer perception of attitudes toward clothing. On the basis of these findings, it could be conjectured that the contrasting demands made upon the opinion leader might serve to cancel out extreme reactions and be reflected in the moderate perceptual style exhibited by the fashion opinion leaders in the present study.

A further objective was to study fashion opinion leadership with regard to internal-external control of reinforcement. A very small, nonsignificant positive correlation resulted between fashion opinion leadership and external control. It was speculated that the fashion opinion leader might tend to place emphasis on clothing rather than on personal attributes, and thus be externally-oriented. The obtained correlation was not strong enough to support this supposition. Perhaps the fashion opinion leader feels that she can to some extent control events through the use of clothing.

A third primary objective of the study was to investigate fashion opinion leadership in relation to anxiety. A highly significant negative correlation resulted between fashion opinion leadership and level of facilitating anxiety, which indicates that fashion opinion leaders

reported that anxiety does not aid performance. A highly significant positive correlation was found between fashion opinion leadership and debilitating anxiety. Fashion opinion leaders, then, reported that anxiety interfered with performance. The Achievement Anxiety Test does not measure general or trait anxiety, but rather the presence and intensity of the response to anxiety. Anxiety learned on the basis of past experience might be the cause of fashion opinion leadership. Opinion leadership might be attempted as a result of a high level of debilitating anxiety. The fashion opinion leader might try to influence others regarding clothing to bolster her self-concept and compensate for the damaging effects of anxiety. Gergen and Marlowe (1970) proposed that a person low in self-regard is more likely to exhibit anxiety and is more receptive to the opinions of others. Summers (1970) found that women's clothing fashion opinion leaders were frequently recipients as well as transmitters of fashion information. Montgomery and Silk (1971) reported that fashion opinion leadership is most often attempted in areas of high interest. A woman might choose clothing as her area of influence because of a high interest in clothing. Ryan (1966) noted that women who reported a high interest in clothing tended to be more anxious and to emphasize overt patterns of adjustment, for example, clothing. Dowdeswell (1972) reported that anxiety was related to clothing values of social acceptance and social recognition for pregnant women. A secondary interpretation of the research findings might be that the fashion opinion leader's perception of her vulnerability resulting from her desire to influence others causes her anxiety. It would appear from the obtained correlations that the fashion leader is not able to channel her anxiety constructively to facilitate her

activities. Instead, anxiety hampers the fashion opinion leader's actions, perhaps interfering with her ability to influence others. The fashion opinion leader's anxiety might undermine her confidence in giving advice, causing her to withdraw and protect the self, rather than reaching out to others. While the first hypothesis has a stronger theoretical basis, it is possible that anxiety plays a dual role as both the cause and result of fashion opinion leadership.

A secondary objective of this research was to explore the correlations among field dependence, internal-external locus of control, and facilitating and debilitating anxiety. No significant correlation was found between field dependence and internal-external control. This finding coincides with Rotter's (1966) report of no relationship between locus of control and another measure of field dependence, the Gottshaldt Figures Test.

The correlations between field dependence and facilitating anxiety, and field dependence and debilitating anxiety were not significant. This does not support the contention that field dependent perceivers tend to be more anxious (Witkin, 1962); however, Witkin used a measure of general anxiety.

Facilitating anxiety showed a negative correlation approaching significance with internal-external locus of control. Debilitating anxiety was correlated to a highly significant degree with internal-external control. This finding sustains research reports by Butterfield (1964), Feather (1967), and Watson (1967) that as locus of control becomes more external, debilitating anxiety increases and facilitating anxiety decreases.

A highly significant negative correlation was found between

facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety. Similar correlations were found in studies done by Alpert (1960), Dember, Nairne and Miller (1962), and Watson (1967). Despite Alpert's efforts to separate the two scales empirically, a significant correlation remains. It would seem that facilitating and debilitating anxiety are associated with one another, but they are not identical as other tests of anxiety imply.

CHAPTER VI
SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate selected perceptual and personality variables in relation to fashion opinion leadership. The selected variables were: field dependence, locus of control, and anxiety.

The theoretical basis for this study was Rogers' theory of diffusion of innovation. Rogers delineated several categories of adopters, according to the time individuals adopt an innovation, and proposed that membership in these categories is associated with characteristic behavior traits. Opinion leaders are those individuals from whom others seek advice and information, and can be found in all spheres of life, including clothing. Witkin's theory of field dependence is incorporated since he theorizes that the mode of perception with respect to the environmental field is linked to personality attributes. Field independent perceivers are characterized by activity and a capacity for organization, while field dependent perceivers tend to passively conform to the dominant environmental field. Also included is Rotter's theory of internal-external control, which proposes that behavior is influenced by the individual's perception of the causal relationship between events affecting him and his own actions. A belief in external control is the expectancy that these events are beyond his control, while a belief in internal control is the expectancy that these same events are contingent upon the individual's actions.

Empirical research suggests that anxiety is connected with field dependence, internal-external control, and clothing use. Alpert developed a test of anxiety which measures facilitating anxiety, anxiety which aids performance, and debilitating anxiety, anxiety which interferes with performance.

A random sample was selected from females listed in the 1972-73 University of Alberta Student Directory. The instruments administered to 102 participants were: Rogers' Opinion Leadership Scale (measuring fashion opinion leadership), Witkin's Rod and Frame Test (measuring field dependence), Rotter's Internal-External Control Scale (measuring locus of control), and Alpert's Achievement Anxiety Test (measuring facilitating and debilitating anxiety). Testing was completed during March and April of 1973. Pearson product-moment correlation and partial correlation were used to compute possible associations between variables; statistical analyses were done by the University of Alberta Computing Center.

Statistical results of the study showed no significant correlation between fashion opinion leadership and field dependence or internal-external control. Fashion opinion leadership was negatively correlated with facilitating anxiety and positively correlated with debilitating anxiety, at the .001 level of confidence, indicating that fashion opinion leaders were low in anxiety which aids performance and high in anxiety which interferes with performance. The correlation between field dependence and locus of control did not reach significance. No significant correlation was found between field dependence and either measure of anxiety. Internal-external control was negatively correlated with facilitating anxiety, the correlation approaching significance, and

positively correlated with debilitating anxiety at the .001 level of confidence; thus, as locus of control became more external, debilitating anxiety increased, and facilitating anxiety decreased.

The objectives delineated for the study were fulfilled. The theoretical framework was only partially supported. Despite its widely recognized importance to the marketplace, very little is empirically known about the dimensions of fashion opinion leadership. It would seem that variables yet to be investigated must underlie the behavior of the fashion opinion leader.

Recommendations

On the basis of this study, some recommendations for further research were formulated:

1. It is suggested that a more comprehensive measure for the identification of the fashion opinion leader should be attempted. Perhaps a study of the fashion opinion leader who scored high on all three of the current identification methods (self-designating, sociometric, and objective fashion count) might prove fruitful.
2. Additional study of the adoption categories in Rogers' diffusion of innovation model might serve to strengthen the theory. The opinion leader might be more efficiently identified by a different method from that used to identify the innovator. Accurate identification is presently hindered by lack of efficient methodology.
3. Since this study did appear to indicate a relationship between fashion opinion leadership and both facilitating and debilitating anxiety, and previous studies have found an association between clothing use and anxiety (Ryan, 1966; Dowdeswell, 1972), further

research using other measures of these variables might serve to consolidate the evidence.

4. An avenue of thought which might have some bearing on the possible relationship between fashion diffusion and anxiety is the degree to which an individual feels free to please himself, or to deviate in dress, versus the degree to which he feels constricted by society.

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VITA

Joyce Eileen Brett

Candidate for the Degree of
Master of Science

Thesis: Fashion Opinion Leadership Related to Selected Perceptual and
Personality Variables

Major Field: Behavioral Science Aspects of Clothing and Textiles

Biographical Information:

Personal Data: Born in Red Deer, Alberta, April 23, 1950; daughter
of June and Mervin Brett

Education: Attended elementary school in Red Deer, Alberta;
graduated from Lindsay Thurber Composite High School in June,
1968; attended Red Deer Junior College, 1968-69; received
Bachelor of Science degree in Household Economics, specializing
in Clothing and Textiles at University of Alberta, May, 1971;
completed requirements for Master of Science degree at
University of Alberta in 1973

Professional Experience: Graduate teaching assistant at University
of Alberta, 1971-73